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# Results of the 1990 NASA/JPL Balloon Flight Solar Cell Calibration Program

B. E. Anspaugh  
R. S. Weiss

November 15, 1990

**NASA**

National Aeronautics and  
Space Administration

Jet Propulsion Laboratory  
California Institute of Technology  
Pasadena, California

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## ABSTRACT

The 1990 solar cell calibration balloon flight consisted of two flights, one on July 20, 1990 and the other on September 6, 1990. A malfunction occurred during the first flight, which resulted in a complete loss of data and a free fall of the payload from 120,000 ft. After the tracker was rebuilt, and several solar cell modules were replaced, the payload was reflown. The September flight was successful and met all the objectives of the program. Forty-six modules were carried to an altitude of 118,000 ft (36.0 km). Data telemetered from the modules was corrected to 28°C and to 1 a.u. The calibrated cells have been returned to the participants and can now be used as reference standards in simulator testing of cells and arrays.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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## 1. INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

The primary source of electrical power for unmanned space vehicles is the direct conversion of solar energy through the use of solar cells. As advancing cell technology continues to modify the spectral response of solar cells to utilize more of the sun's spectrum, designers of solar cells and arrays must have the capability of measuring these cells in a light beam that is a close match to the solar spectrum. The solar spectrum has been matched very closely by laboratory solar simulators. But the design of solar cells and the sizing of solar arrays requires such highly accurate measurements that the intensity of these simulators must be set very accurately. A small error in setting the simulator intensity can conceivably cause a disastrous missizing of a solar panel, causing either a premature shortfall in power or the launch of an oversized, overweight solar panel.

The JPL solar cell calibration program was conceived to produce reference standards for the purpose of properly setting solar simulator intensities. The concept was to fly solar cells on a high-altitude balloon, measure their output at altitudes near 120,000 ft, recover the cells, and use them as reference standards. The procedure is simple. The reference cell is placed in the simulator beam and the beam intensity is adjusted until the reference cell reads the same as it read on the balloon. As long as the reference cell has the same spectral response as the cells or panels to be measured, this is a very accurate method of setting the intensity. But as solar cell technology changes, the spectral response of the solar cells changes also, and reference standards must be continually renewed.

Until the summer of 1985, there had always been a question as to how much the atmosphere above the balloon modified the solar spectrum. If the modification was significant, the reference cells might not have the required accuracy. Solar cells made in recent years have increasingly higher blue responses and if the atmosphere has any effect at all, it would be expected to modify the calibration of these newer blue cells much more so than for cells made in the past.

In late 1984, a collection of solar cells representing a wide cross section of solar cell technology was flown on the shuttle Discovery as a part of the Solar Cell Calibration Facility (SCCF) experiment. The cells were calibrated as reference cells on this flight using procedures similar to those used on the balloon flights. The same cells were then flown on the 1985 balloon flight and remeasured. Since the two sets of measurements gave nearly identical results (See

Ref.), the reference standards from balloon flights may continue to be used with high confidence.

JPL has been flying calibration standards on high altitude balloons since 1963, and continues to put together a calibration balloon flight at least once a year. This tradition was again continued this year. The 1990 flight incorporated 46 solar cell modules from 7 different participants. The cells included Si, GaAs, InP and CuInSe<sub>2</sub> cells from both domestic and foreign manufacturers. Two flights were necessary in 1990 because of a malfunction in the first flight in July. An electrical short in the tracker's elevation drive motor caused a fuse to blow, and the result was a complete loss of data before reaching float altitude. Even worse, the tracker was not able to detach from the balloon and suffered a free-fall of 120,000 ft. The tracker and solar panel were bent up a bit, and several cell modules were destroyed. JPL Module BFS-17A which had been our repeatability standard for 27 years and 41 flights was among the modules destroyed. The tracker was rebuilt, cells were replaced to the extent possible, and the package was reflown successfully in September, 1990. It is the results of this second flight that will be reported here.

## 2. PREFLIGHT PROCEDURES

### 2.1 MODULE FABRICATION

The cells were mounted by the participants on JPL-supplied standard modules according to standard procedures developed for the construction of reference cells. The JPL standard module is a machined copper block, rimmed by a fiberglass circuit board with insulated solder posts. This assembly is painted with either high-reflectance white or low-reflectance black paint and is permanently provided with a load resistor. The resistor performs two tasks. First, it loads the cells near short-circuit current, which is the cell parameter that varies in direct proportion to light intensity. Second, it scales the cell outputs to read near 100 mV during the flight, matching a constraint imposed by the telemetry electronics. Load resistance values are 0.5 ohm for a 2 x 2 cm cell, 0.25 ohm for a 2 x 4 cm cell, etc. The load resistors are precision (0.1 percent, 20 ppm/°C) and have a resistance stability equal to or better than  $\pm 0.002\%$  over a three-year period. The solar cells are permanently glued to the body of the machined copper block with RTV 560 or equivalent. This gives a good thermal conductivity path between cell and copper block, yet provides electrical insulation between the rear surface of the solar cells and the block.

## 2.2 CELL MEASUREMENTS

After the cells were mounted onto the copper blocks, the electrical output of each cell module was measured under illumination by the JPL X25 Mark II solar simulator. For these measurements, the simulator intensity was set using only one reference cell--no attempt was made to match the spectral response of the reference standard to the individual cell modules. The absolute accuracy of these measurements is therefore unknown, but the measurements do allow checking of the modules for any unacceptable assembly losses or instabilities. After the balloon flight, the cells were measured in exactly the same way to check for any cell damage or instabilities that may have occurred as a result of the flight.

## 2.3 TEMPERATURE COEFFICIENTS AND LEAST SQUARES FITS

The temperature coefficients of the mounted cells were also measured before the flight. The modules were mounted in their flight configuration on a temperature controlled block in a vacuum chamber. Outputs were measured at 0, 20, 40, 60, and 80° C under illumination with the X25 simulator. The temperature coefficients of the cell modules were computed by fitting the output vs temperature relationship with a linear least squares fit.

## 2.4 PANEL ASSEMBLY AND CHECKOUT

After the electrical measurements were completed, the modules were mounted on the solar panel and connected electrically. Figure 1 is a photograph of the modules after completion of these steps and Figure 2 is a diagram that identifies the modules in the photograph by their serial numbers. After completion of the panel assembly, the panel and tracker together were given complete functional tests in terrestrial sunlight. The assembled tracker and panel were placed in sunlight on a clear, bright day, and checked for the tracker's ability to acquire and track the sun while each cell module was checked for electrical output. When these tests were completed satisfactorily, the assembly was shipped to the National Scientific Balloon Facility (NSBF) in Palestine, Texas, for flight.

## 2.5 PRELAUNCH PROCEDURES AT PALESTINE

The NSBF was established in 1963 at Palestine, Texas. This location was chosen because it has favorable weather conditions for balloon launching and a large number of clear days with light surface winds. The high-altitude winds in

this part of the country take the balloons over sparsely populated areas so the descending payloads are unlikely to cause damage to persons or property. The JPL calibration flights have flown from the Palestine facility since 1973. The flights are scheduled to fly in the June to September time period, since the sun is high in the sky at that time of year, and the sunlight passes through a minimum depth of atmosphere before reaching the solar modules.

Upon arrival at Palestine, the tracker and module payload were again checked for proper operation. After the failure encountered during the July flight, it was decided that additional environmental testing was in order. Prior to the second flight, the voltage reference box and the data encoder were connected to the tracker assembly and the entire system was placed in an environmental test chamber. The chamber was pumped down to a pressure of  $\approx 120$  mb and cooled to -35° C and the system thoroughly tested. Then, the assembly was removed from the environmental chamber and a room temperature, end-to-end check was performed on the payload, telemetry, receiving, and decoding systems. The four output voltage levels of the voltage reference box were wired into the telemetry stream along with the module outputs. The analog-to-digital converter system was calibrated by recording these four voltage levels as they were input to the system and as they were converted, decoded, and sent through the system as digital output values. The thermistor channels were calibrated by replacing each thermistor, in turn, with a known calibration resistor while the entire system was operating. Eleven resistors are used in this procedure to produce calibrations at 10° increments over the 0 to 100° C range. The checkout was completed by watching the system over a period of 2 to 3 hours to make sure no stability problems occurred.

After all the checkouts and calibrations were performed, the tracker was mounted onto the aluminum tubular hoop assembly which will ride on the top portion (or apex) of the balloon. Figure 3 is a photograph of the tracker and solar panel after mounting onto the hoop.

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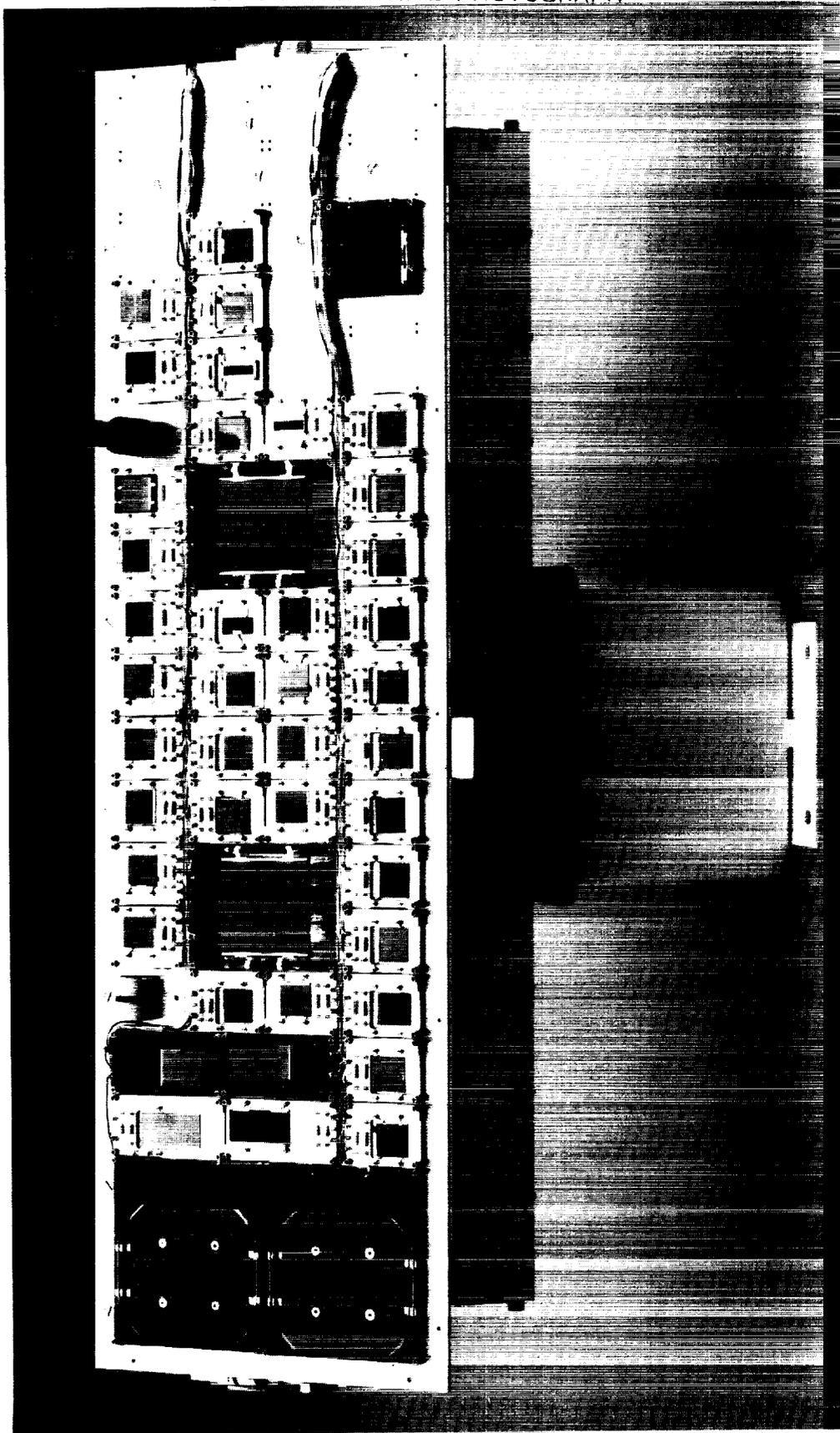
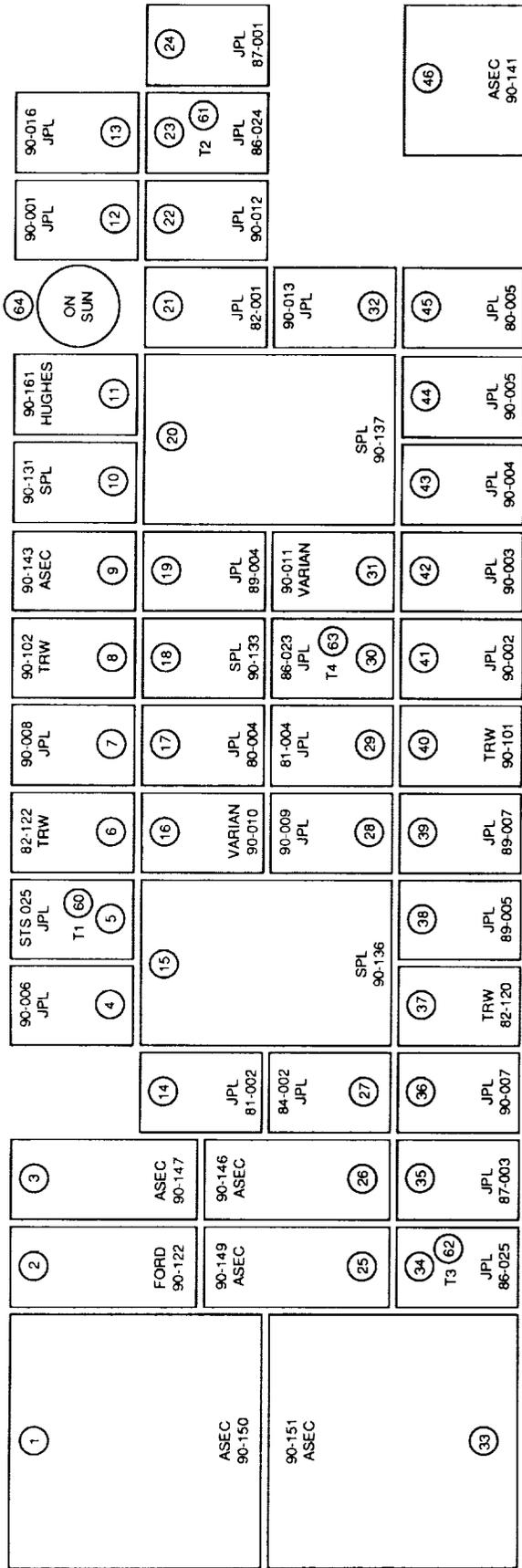


Figure 1. Photograph of the 1990 Balloon Flight Solar Panel



○ INDICATES CHANNEL NUMBER

- T1 (60) THERMISTOR 1
- T2 (61) THERMISTOR 2
- T3 (62) THERMISTOR 3
- T4 (63) THERMISTOR 4

Figure 2. 1990 Module Location Chart

### 3. BALLOON SYSTEM

The main components of the balloon flight system were (1) the apex-mounted hoop assembly that contains the experimental package, the data encoder, the recovery system, and the camera package, (2) the balloon, and (3) the lower payload that contains the telemetry and power systems.

#### 3.1 BALLOON DESCRIPTION

The balloon employed for the JPL solar cell calibration high-altitude flights had a volume of 3.49 million ft<sup>3</sup> (99,000 m<sup>3</sup>) and was made from 0.8-mil (20 micron) stratofilm, a polyethylene film designed for balloon use. The balloon alone weighs 704 pounds (319 kg). The balloon was designed to lift itself, along with the bottom and top payloads, to a float altitude of 120,000 ft (36 km). At float altitude, the balloon will have a diameter of roughly 188 ft (59 m). A multiconductor cable to electrically connect the top and bottom payloads was built into the balloon during its manufacture. The balloon was built with an internal rip line designed to rip a hole in the side of the balloon for termination of the flight. A special structure was built into the top of the balloon for attaching the top payload. Two poppet valves incorporated into this mounting structure are commanded to open and release helium from the balloon at the end of the flight. The poppet valves act as a backup to the rip line.

Trying to inflate and launch a balloon with a sizeable weight attached to its top is like trying to balance a 30-ft broom handle on the end of your finger when the broom handle has a 50-lb weight on top. A tow balloon, tied to the top payload, was used during the inflation and launch phases to add stability and keep the top payload on top. This smaller balloon, about 31,000 ft<sup>3</sup>, is designed to lift about 160 lb (73 kg). The tow balloon was cut loose from the top payload after launch as soon as the main balloon stabilized and the launch-induced oscillations damped out.

#### 3.2 TOP PAYLOAD

The top payload consists of the tracker, solar panel, voltage reference box, multiplexer, data encoder, single-frame movie camera, clock, descent parachute, and tracking beacon. All these items were mounted to the aluminum hoop assembly shown in Figure 3. The hoop assembly, with appropriately placed Styrofoam crush pads, served the following functions:

1. Permitted the top-mounted payload to "float" on top of the balloon and minimized billowing of balloon material around the top payload.
2. Served as the mounting surface to the balloon's top end fitting.
3. Provided a convenient point for attaching the tow balloon and the descent parachute.
4. Acted as a shock damper to protect and minimize damage to the top payload at touchdown.

The complete apex-mounted hoop assembly, as flown, weighed approximately 72 pounds (33 kg) and descended as a unit by parachute at flight termination.

The sun tracker, shown in Figure 3, is capable of orienting the solar panel toward the sun, compensating for the motion of the balloon by using two-axis tracking in both azimuth and elevation. The tracker has the capability to maintain its lock onto the sun to within  $\pm 1$  degree. To verify that the tracker was operating properly, the output of an on-sun indicator was constantly monitored during flight by feeding its output to the multiplexer and entering its signal into the telemetry stream. The on-sun indicator consists of a small, circular solar cell mounted at the bottom of a collimator tube, 7 in. (17.8 cm) long with an aperture measuring 0.315 in. (0.8 cm) in diameter. The indicator was attached to the solar panel so that it pointed at the sun when the panel was perpendicular to the sun. The output of the on-sun indicator falls off very rapidly as the collimator tube points away from the sun and provides a very sensitive indication of proper tracker operation.

A reflection shield was attached to the panel to prevent any stray reflected light from reaching any of the modules. This shield was made of sheet aluminum and attached to three edges of the solar panel. The shield is the U-shaped, black object shown on the panel in Figure 3.

The solar cell modules were mounted onto the sun tracker platform with an interface of Apiezon H grease and held in place with four screws. The grease was used to achieve a highly conductive thermal contact between the modules and the panel and to smooth out the temperature distribution over the solar panel as much as possible.

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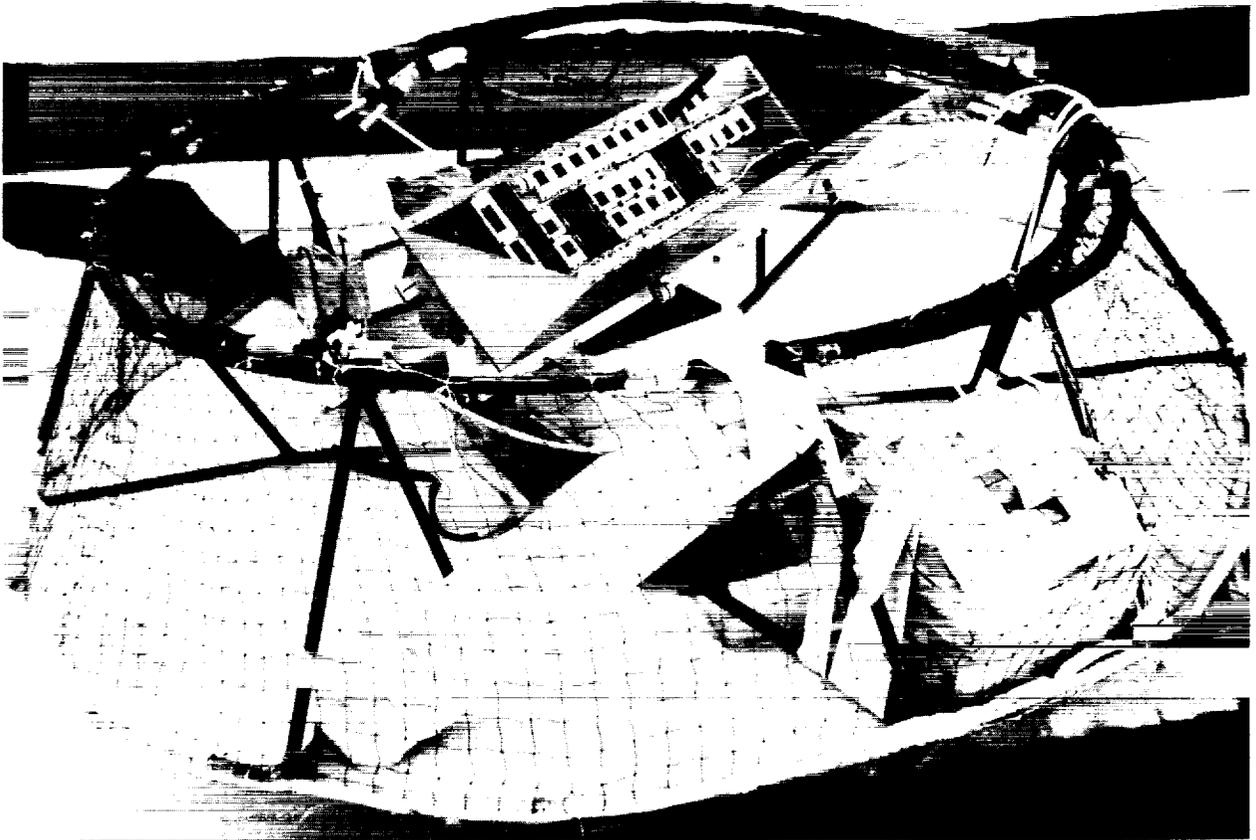


Figure 3. Aluminum Hoop Assembly with Tracker Mounted

The solar panel temperature was monitored using thermistors. Some of the solar cell modules were constructed with calibrated precision thermistors embedded in the copper substrate directly beneath the solar cell. Four of these modules were mounted on the solar panel at strategic locations so their temperature readings gave an accurate representation of panel temperature. Placement of these modules on the panel is shown in Figure 2.

The pulse code modulation (PCM) data encoder amplified the analog signals from the solar cells, thermistors, on-sun indicator, and reference voltages, then performed an analog-to-digital conversion. The encoder had a programmable control unit that was used to set bit rate, bits per word, parity, analog-to-digital conversion, and format. A PROM was used to provide format control. Four 32-channel multiplexers allow sampling of up to 128 data channels and amplify the low-level signals from the experimental package. The amplifier was designed to process voltage signals at input levels up to 100 mV. The multiplexer stepped through the various channels at a rate of two scans per second, i.e., every data channel is read twice each second.

An ultra-wide-angle, single-frame movie camera mounted at the perimeter of the aluminum hoop provided visual documentation of tracker operation. A battery-powered timer activated the shutter at 10-second intervals, so that 50 ft of 8-mm movie film is sufficient to record the entire flight from launch to landing. A wind-up clock was placed in the camera's field of view for correlation of tracker operation to the telemetered data. The pictures provide a complete record of ascent, tracker operation at float altitude, descent, touchdown, and post-touchdown events.

A tracking or locator beacon was attached to the hoop assembly. This beacon, similar to those used for tracking wild animals in their natural habitat, consists of a low wattage transmitter which sends short 160 MHz pulses at the rate of about one per second. A hand held directional antenna and a battery powered receiver is used inside the chase plane for locating the transmitter. This beacon has been very useful in locating this very small payload in a very large open range.

### 3.3 BOTTOM PAYLOAD

The bottom payload was entirely furnished by the NSBF. It consists of a battery power supply, a ballast

module for balloon control, and an electronics module known as the Consolidated Instrument Package (CIP).

Power for operating most of the electrical and electronic equipment on the balloon was supplied by a high-capacity complement of lithium batteries. This supply, furnishing 28 VDC regulated power and 36 VDC unregulated power, powered the sun tracker and all the instruments in the CIP. Several other small battery sources were used at various locations on the balloon for instruments that require small amounts of power. For example, the tracking beacons, the voltage reference box, and the camera timer all had individual battery power supplies. All batteries were sized to supply power for at least twice the expected duration of a normal flight.

High-altitude balloons tend to lose helium slowly during the course of the flight. As a consequence, a helium balloon will tend to reach float altitude and then begin a slow descent. To counteract this tendency, a ballast system was included as part of the bottom payload. It contained approximately 150 pounds (68 kg) of ballast in the form of very fine steel shot. The shot may be released in any desired amount by radio command. By proper use of this system, float altitude may be maintained to within  $\pm 2,000$  ft ( $\pm 600$  m).

The telemetry system was contained in the CIP. A block diagram of the telemetry system is shown in Figure 4. The system sent all data transmissions concerning the flight over a common RF carrier. The CIP also contained a command system for sending commands to the balloon for controlling scientific payloads or for controlling the housekeeping functions on the balloon. Specifically, the CIP contained the following equipment:

1. MKS pressure transducers
2. Omega receiver
3. Subcarrier oscillators as required
4. L-band FM transmitter
5. High-frequency tracking beacon transmitter
6. Transponder for air traffic control tracking
7. PCM command receiver-decoder
8. Loran receiver

The altitude of the balloon was measured with a capacitance-type electronic transducer, which read pressure within the range of 1020 to 0.4 millibars (102,000 to 40 Newtons/m<sup>2</sup>) with an accuracy of 0.05%. The transducer produced a DC level that was encoded as PCM data and

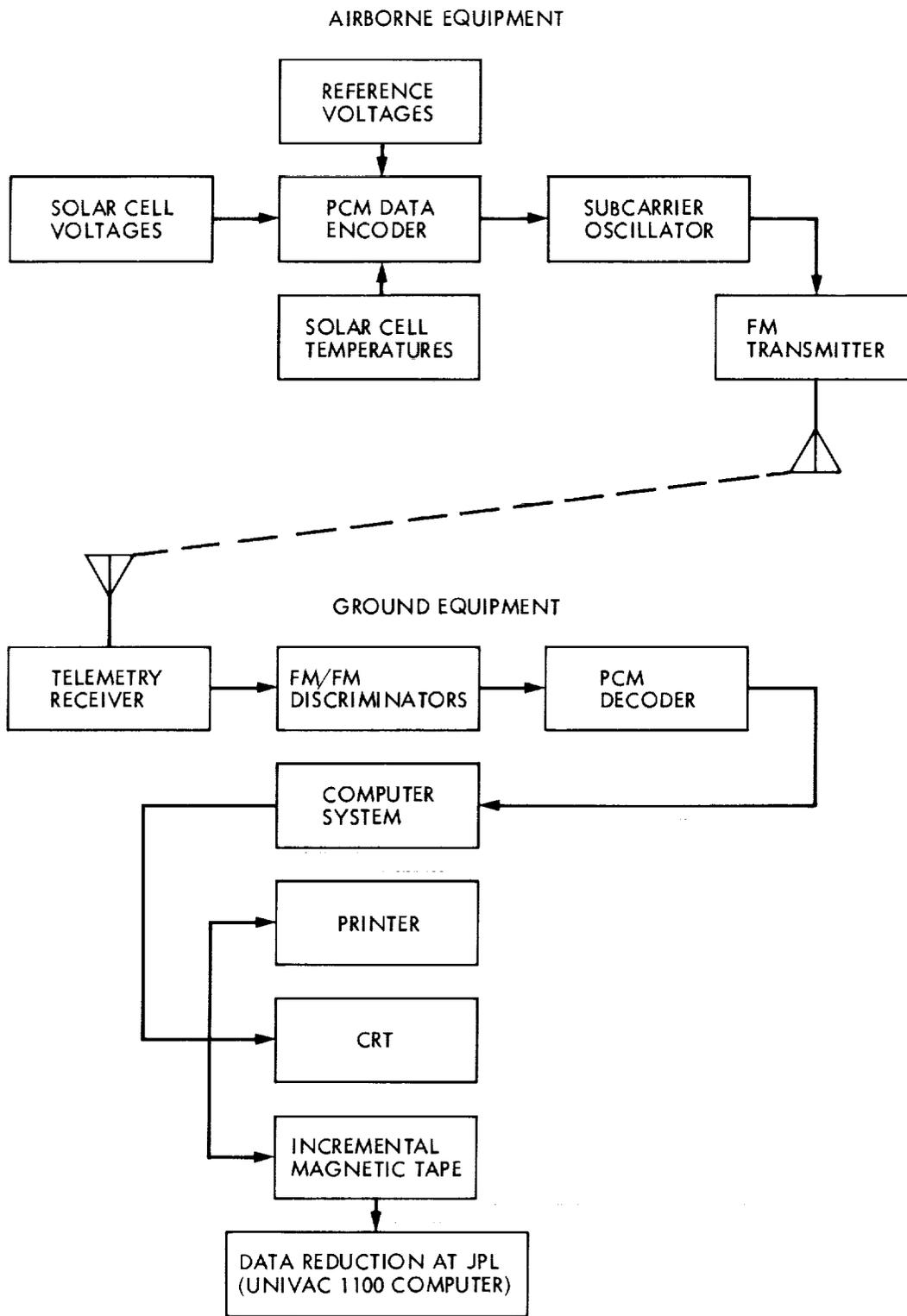


Figure 4. Block Diagram of Balloon Telemetry System

decoded at the receiving station into pressure, and then the altitude was calculated from the pressure reading.

The Omega and Loran navigation systems were used for flight tracking. An onboard receiver was used to receive these signals for retransmission to the processor in the ground station. This system can provide position data to an uncertainty of less than 2 mi (3.2 km). The Loran signal was multiplexed into the telemetry stream and updated every 8 seconds.

As previously mentioned, all the telemetry data was sent to the ground in the form of pulse code modulation. A UHF L-band transmitter in the CIP was used to generate the RF carrier. The L-band carrier was modulated by the pulse code and sent to the receiving station at Palestine.

Several tracking beacons were used on the balloon. A low-frequency transmitting beacon, attached to the lower payload, was used by the automatic direction finding (ADF) system in the recovery airplane to track and locate the balloon during flight and recovery. An aircraft type transponder was flown so that Air Traffic Control could read the balloon's location on their radar systems during the flight.

The purpose of the PCM command system is to send commands to the balloon, i.e., to turn the tracker on or off, terminate the flight, etc. It was designed to reject false commands and was highly reliable in operation. The data was encoded on a frequency-shift-keyed audio carrier. This signal was then decoded into data and timing control. Each command consisted of a double transmission of the data word. Both words must be decoded and pass a bit-by-bit comparison before a command is executed. Commands may be sent to the balloon from either the ground station at Palestine or from the recovery airplane.

The lower payload is suspended from the balloon by a 8.5-m-diameter parachute. The top end of the parachute was fastened to the bottom of the balloon and the lower payload, containing the CIP, the battery power supply, and the ballast, was attached to the shroud lines. Appropriate electrical cables and break-away connectors were rigged in parallel with the mechanical connections. The whole bottom assembly was designed to break away from the balloon and fall to earth suspended from the parachute at termination of the flight.

## 4. FLIGHT SEQUENCE

### 4.1 PRELAUNCH PREPARATIONS

The balloon launching pad at the NSBF is a large circular area, 2,000 ft (600 m) in diameter. In the center of this large circle is another circular area, solidly paved, measuring 1,000 ft (300 m) in diameter. Grass is planted in the area between the two circles, and a paved road surrounds the large circle. Paved radials extend from the perimeter road toward the launch pad.

When all prelaunch preparations had been completed and the staff meteorologist had predicted favorable weather and winds at Palestine and for some 300 mi (480 km) down range, the equipment was taken to the launch site. The main balloon, protected by a plastic sheath, was laid out full length on the circular paved area. It was aligned with the direction of the wind, with the top of the balloon upwind. The top end of the balloon was passed under, behind, and over the top of a large, smooth, horizontal spool mounted on the front end of the spool vehicle. One end of this launching spool was hinged to the spool vehicle. The other end of the spool had a latch that could be released by a trigger mechanism. After the balloon was passed over the spool, the spool was pushed back to engage the latch so that the spool trapped the balloon. The top 10 m or so of the balloon was pulled forward from the spool, allowing the top payload to rest on the ground. It is this top 10 m of balloon that later receives the helium gas during inflation. The helium forms a kind of bubble in this part of the balloon above the launching spool. After the launching spool was latched, final preparations of the top payload were begun. The tow balloon was attached to the hoop with nylon lines, the clock was wound, the camera was energized, and a final checkout of the tracker and data encoder was performed.

The launch sequence began by inflating the tow balloon with helium. The main balloon was then inflated by passing a predetermined volume of helium through two long fill-tubes and into the balloon. Figure 5 shows the configuration of the flight train at this stage of preparation. The balloon was launched by triggering the latch on the launching spool. When the latch released, a stout spring caused the free end of the spool to fly forward, rotating about the hinge. This released the balloon. As the balloon rose, the launch vehicle at the lower end of the balloon began to move forward (downwind). When the driver of the launch vehicle had positioned the vehicle directly below the balloon and had his vehicle going along at the same speed as the balloon, he released the latch on the pin and the

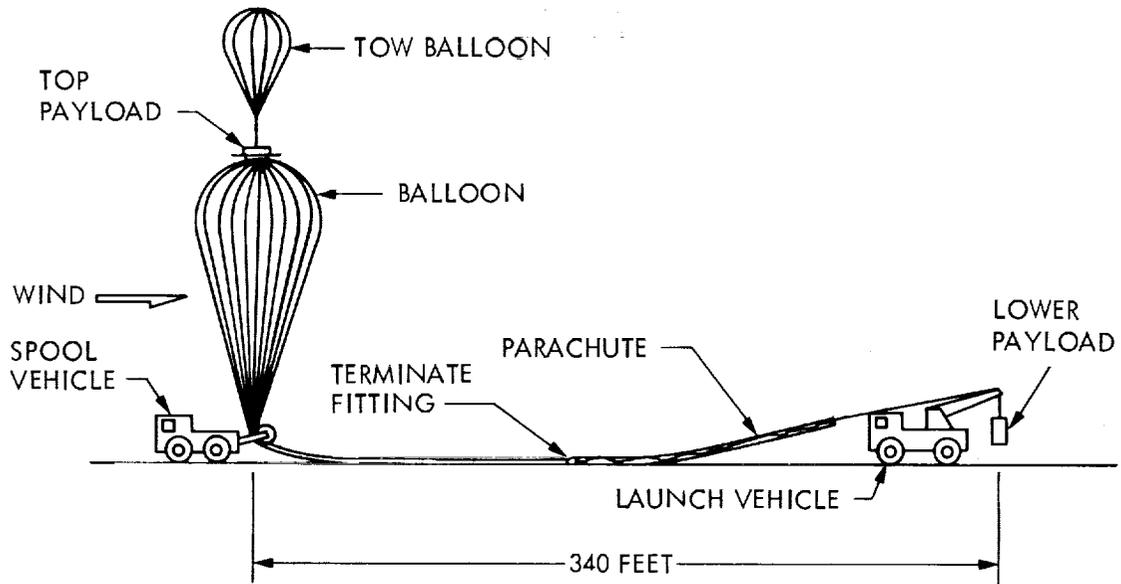


Figure 5. Flight Train Configuration

lower payload was released. Figure 6 shows the balloon system and the launch vehicle a few seconds after release of the launching spool just as the downwind launch vehicle began to move. As soon as the main balloon quit oscillating, a signal was sent from the launch pad triggering an explosive charge. This released the tow balloon and the launch sequence was complete.

#### 4.2 FLIGHT

The balloon ascended at a rate of approximately 1000 ft/min (5.0 m/s) and reached float altitude after approximately 2 hours. During the ascent, the flight controller at Palestine maintained a constant contact with Air Traffic Control (ATC). Data from the onboard navigational system was continuously given to ATC so that air traffic in the area could be vectored around the balloon.

After the balloon had been launched, solar cell voltages, interspersed with reference calibration voltages and thermistor voltages, were fed into the telemetry system. These voltages were converted to PCM and were transmitted to the NSBF ground station along with the navigational, altitude, and other information from the CIP. At the ground station they were decoded, recorded, and displayed in real time for monitoring of the flight. The balloon reached float altitude at 1524 GMT, which was approximately 3 hours before solar noon. The tracker was turned on by telemetry command a few minutes after reaching float. Tracker operation was monitored by observing the telemetered values for the current drawn by the tracker motors, the output of the on-sun indicator, and the outputs of about half the solar cell modules. Data was recorded from 1530 GMT through 2011 GMT when the flight was terminated. Solar noon occurred at approximately 1830 GMT for this flight.

#### 4.3 FLIGHT TERMINATION

Approximately three hours after the balloon reached float altitude, the recovery airplane took off from Palestine with the recovery crew aboard. This airplane was equipped with a radio system that allowed the crew to maintain constant communication with the balloon base either by direct transmission or by radio relay from the balloon. The airplane also had a full command system so that it could send commands to the balloon. During the summer months, the winds at altitudes above 80,000 ft (24 km) blow from east to west at speeds of about 50 knots (25 m/sec), so the airplane normally has to fly about 300 mi (500 km) west of Palestine to be in position for recovery. However, since this launch took place so late in the year, the upper level

winds were very light, and the top payload impacted approximately 50 miles from Palestine. The pilot can fly directly toward the balloon at any time by using the ADF to track the low-frequency beacon. He can also monitor his position with respect to the balloon by using the Loran readouts of both the balloon's position and the airplane's position. The pilot of the recovery airplane is responsible for the termination phase. Before leaving Palestine, the pilot had been provided a set of descent vectors by the staff meteorologist. The descent vectors are an estimate of the trajectories the payloads will follow as they come down on their parachutes. Upon receiving word from Palestine that the experimenter had all the data he needed, the pilot flew under the balloon and established its position accurately by visual observation. Using the descent vectors, he then plotted where the payloads should come down. He also established contact with Air Traffic Control. When ATC advised that the payloads would not endanger air traffic, and when the descent vector plots showed that the payloads would not come down in an inhabited area, the pilot sent the commands to the balloon for termination of the flight.

The termination sequence consisted of first sending a command that disconnected power from the tracker and data encoder. Next a command was sent that cut the electrical cable running from the bottom payload to the top payload. This command simultaneously cut the cables holding the top payload onto the top of the balloon and opened the poppet valves on the top of the balloon. A second command released the bottom parachute from the balloon, allowing the bottom payload to fall away and caused the balloon to become top heavy. As the bottom payload fell, a ripcord attached to the top of the parachute opened a large section in the balloon. The balloon collapsed, the top payload fell off the balloon, its parachute opened and all three objects began their descent.

Approximately 1 hour is required for the two parachutes and the balloon to fall from float altitude at the descent rate of roughly 1250 ft/min (6.4 m/s). During this time, the pilot monitored the position of the bottom payload using his ADF. He also monitored the altitude information from the pressure transducer and relayed this information along to ATC. After reaching the ground, all three items had to be found. The beacons on the top and bottom payloads usually aid in locating them rather quickly. Search patterns centered on the impact zones calculated from the descent vectors are flown as necessary. Once the impact locations were established from the air, the ground recovery crew was directed into the proper areas to recover the payloads.

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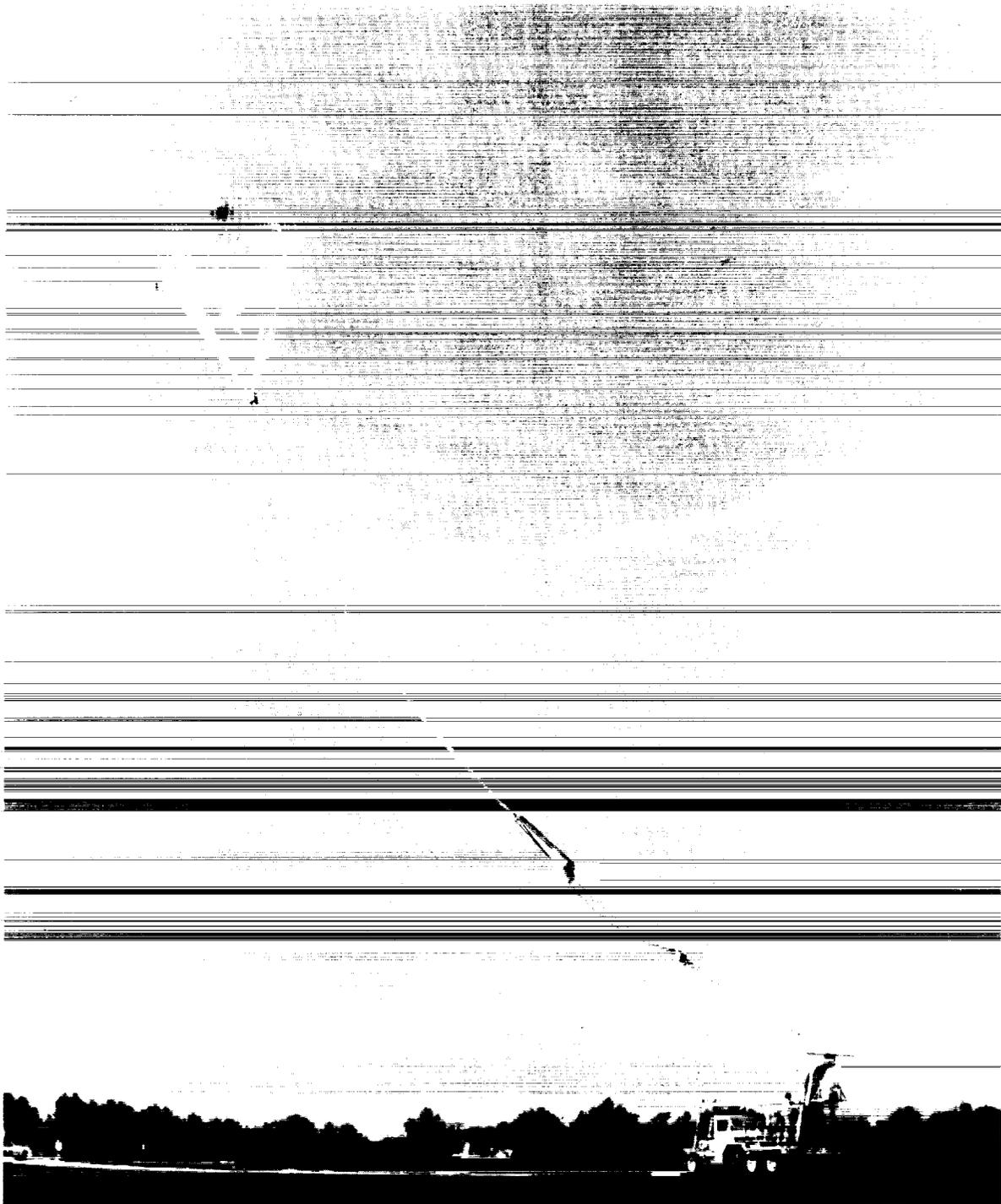


Figure 6. Balloon Launch

Figure 7 is the flight profile for the 1990 balloon flight (No. 1496P in the nomenclature of the NSBF). The plot shows altitude vs time from the time of launch until touchdown. The points are plotted on approximately 10-minute time intervals. As shown on the figure, the touchdown site was approximately 50 mi (80 km) from the launch site. The total flight duration was  $\approx$  8 hours. The period of time during which computer analysis of the flight data occurred is also shown on the figure. Data later in the flight, and nearer solar noon, was degraded in quality due to an intermittent glitch in the data encoder.

## 5. DATA ANALYSIS

The computer analysis was performed at JPL using the Univac 1100 computer. The program read the raw data from the magnetic tape produced during the flight, then corrected the cell data for temperature and sun-earth distance according to the formula:

$$V_{28,1} = V_{T,R}(R^2) - A(T - 28)$$

where

- $V_{T,R}$  = measured module output voltage at temperature T and distance R.
- R = sun-earth distance in astronomical units (AU).
- A = module output temperature coefficient.
- T = module temperature in degrees C.

The remainder of this section describes the details of performing the above corrections and computing calibration values for the cells.

### 5.1 COMPUTER ANALYSIS

The computer program read data from the magnetic tape one record at a time. Each record contained 16 scans of data plus a ground frame. Each scan of data consisted of two synch words followed by a reading of each of the 64 data channels. The ground frame contained the date and time of the scan, followed by the latitude, longitude, and pressure as measured by instruments on the balloon. The program first checked the ground frame to see whether the record fell within the allowed data analysis time. (The allowed data analysis time window is an input to the program set by the parameters MINTIM and MAXTIM.) The computer rejected the entire frame if the time of the current record fell outside the time window or if it could not read the time properly. The computer read records within the time window until it had accumulated 200 scans. Each

set of 200 scans is called a pass. At this point, the data was in pulse code modulation (PCM) counts. The PCM data for each channel was averaged, then a screening procedure was used to reject scans containing questionable data. For example, scans were rejected if the on-sun indicator was lower than a threshold value (input parameter OSMIN). Scans were also rejected if the PCM count for a data channel was not within the allowable PCM count range, if there was too large a count deviation on any channel from one scan to the next, or if there was an unrecoverable problem in reading the tape.

The PCM data was next converted to engineering units. The program has a provision for doing this in any of four different ways. The simplest and most commonly used method will be described here. During the calibration of the telemetry system, the output of the telemetry system vs the input from the voltage reference box was recorded to produce a table of mV input vs PCM count output. Similarly for the thermistor channels, a series of resistors was connected one by one across a thermistor channel and the resulting PCM count for that channel recorded. Since the temperature corresponding to each resistance value was known, the construction of a PCM count vs temperature table was possible. This procedure was repeated for all thermistor channels and a calibration table was constructed for each thermistor channel. All these calibration values were input to the computer program. During conversion of solar cell data to mV, the computer performed a linear interpolation in the PCM vs mV table. At the completion of the initial computer analysis run, the output values of each channel corresponding to voltage reference levels were checked. If they were found to have held constant during the flight, (they normally read constant to within  $\pm$  one PCM count out of 1,000) the use of the simple linear interpolation scheme was continued for the final data analysis. Since the relationship between thermistor resistance vs temperature is nonlinear, a third degree polynomial was used for the interpolation of the temperature values.

At the end of each pass, four averages were computed for each channel: (1) an initial average based on all acceptable scans, (2) a corrected average, using all data falling within a specified fractional deviation (input parameter ADEV) of the initial averages, (3) the corrected average multiplied by the square of the earth-sun radius vector (in AU) for the day of the flight (input parameter RV), and (4) a final average with all the above corrections plus a temperature correction to 28° Celsius. This final

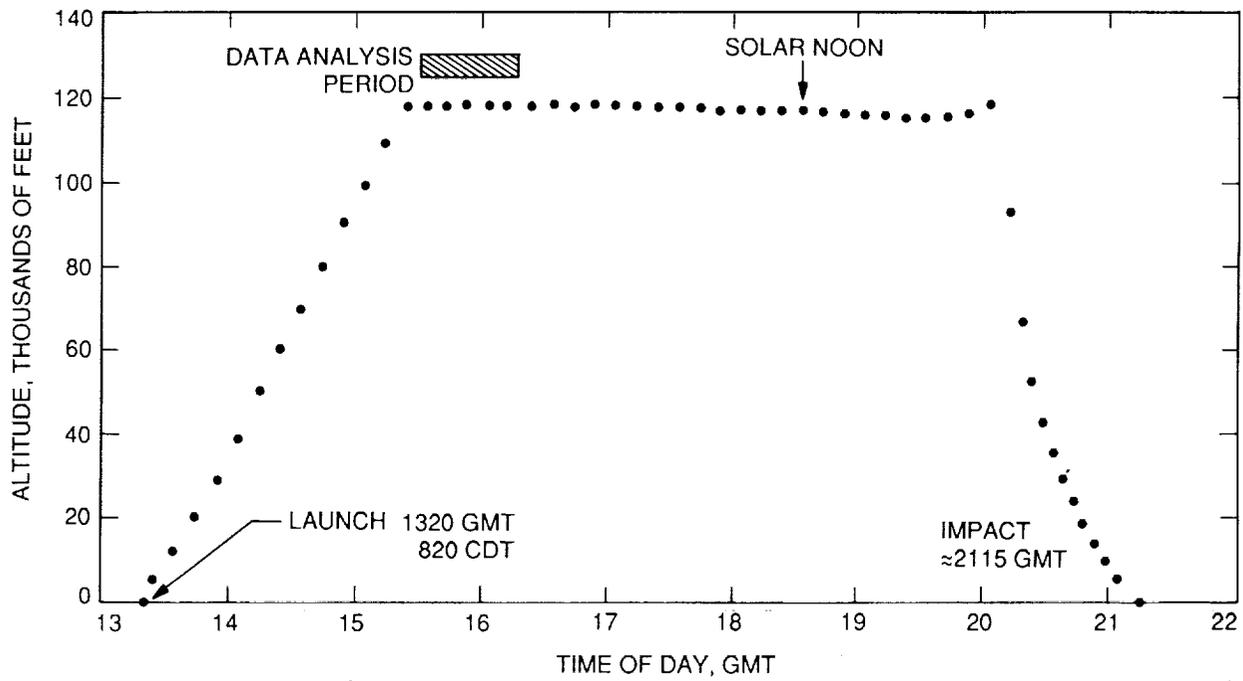


Figure 7. 1990 Balloon Launch Flight Profile

correction used the values of the temperature coefficients measured in the laboratory (input parameters TPCOEF).

This completes the data analysis for one pass of data. The entire process was repeated by returning to the tape-reading routine and reading another pass (200 scans) of data. All the screening and averaging routines were performed on this pass also, and this procedure was continued until 13 passes of data had been analyzed or until MAXTIM was exceeded. This resulted in 2,600 data points for each cell module on the flight.

In addition to the averages taken after each pass, an overall summary matrix was constructed which contained the fully corrected averages for each channel after each pass. A row of entries was added to this matrix after each pass. After all passes had been completed, an overall average and standard deviation were computed for each channel. These overall averages of 2,600 readings are the reported calibration values for the modules.

## 5.2 CALIBRATION RESULTS

Table 1 reports the calibration values of all the cells calibrated on the 1990 balloon flight, corrected to 28° C and to 1 AU. The table also reports the standard deviation of the 2,600 measurements, the preflight and postflight readings of each module in the X25 simulator, a comparison of the preflight with the postflight simulator readings, and a comparison of the preflight simulator readings with the balloon calibration readings. The table also reports the temperature coefficients measured for each module in the laboratory.

The 1990 calibration actually consisted of two flights, one on July 20, 1990 and the other on September 6, 1990. A malfunction occurred during the first flight, which resulted in a complete loss of data and a subsequent free fall of the payload from  $\approx 120,000$  ft which bent up the tracker assembly and destroyed several cell modules. The tracker was rebuilt, several cells were replaced, and the refurbished payload was flown again in September. The results reported in Table 1 are derived from the second flight.

## 5.3 DATA REPEATABILITY

Several standard modules have been flown repeatedly over the 28-year period of calibration flights. Module BFS-17A, which had been flown on 41 flights, was used to monitor the repeatability of the balloon flight system. However, BFS-17A was one of the modules destroyed in the

first 1990 flight and can be used no longer. As discussed in the 1989 report, the calibration values for BFS-17A averaged to a value of 60.180 over its 41 flights, with a standard deviation of 0.278 (0.46%). In addition to giving a measure of the consistency of the year-to-year measurements, BFS-17A also provided insight into the quality of the solar irradiance falling on the solar panel with regard to uniformity, shadowing, or reflections. This cell had been mounted in various locations on the panel over the years. In spite of this its readings were always consistent, indicating that there are no uniformity, shadowing, or reflection problems with the geometry of this system.

In looking over our records, we have identified other candidate cells which might give a measure of repeatability. We have found four BFS cells which have been flown at least four times, including one which was flown on the shuttle. Three of these are Si cells and one is a 1986 vintage GaAs cell. Data from these cells is presented in Table 2. While no steadfast conclusions can be made based on such a small amount of data, the measurements do indicate that the 1990 calibration values are consistent with those of previous years.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

The 1990 balloon flight ended on a successful note even though it took two tries. Sixteen cells from previous flights were reflown this year. Of these 16, 6 are Si cells, 8 are GaAs cells and 2 are unknown types. Considering the Si cells, the maximum deviation of the 1990 data from the average data was 0.45%. For the GaAs cells, the maximum deviation of the 1990 data from the average was 1.44%. These results and comparisons are similar to those achieved in previous flights, and we believe the calibration values obtained from the 1990 flight can be used with a high degree of confidence.

## 7. REFERENCE

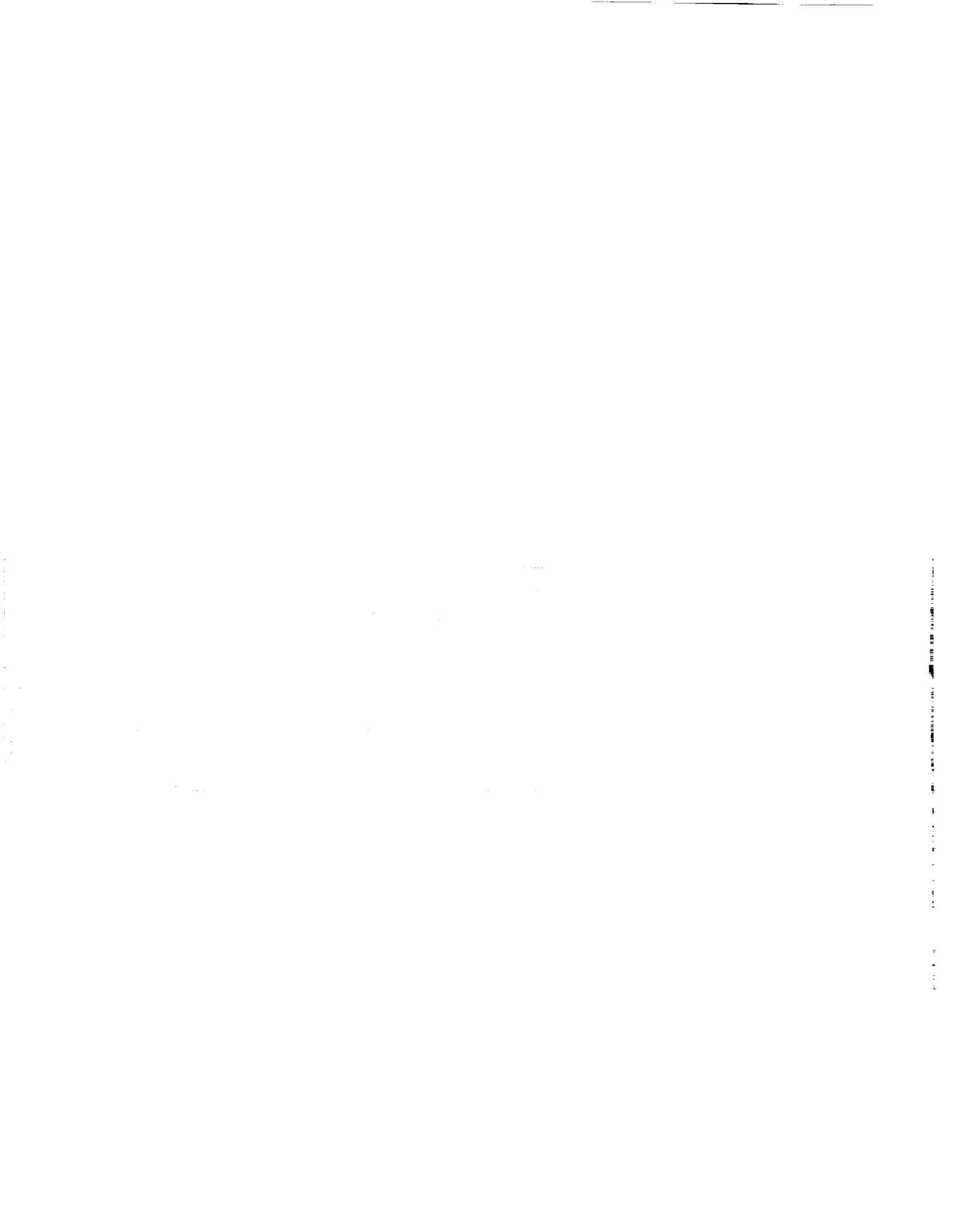
B.E. Anspaugh, R.G. Downing and L.B. Sidwell, Solar Cell Calibration Facility Validation of Balloon Flight Data: A Comparison of Shuttle and Balloon Flight Results, JPL Publication No. 85-78, Jet Propulsion Laboratory, Pasadena, Calif., October 15, 1985.

Table 1. 1990 Balloon Flight 9/6/90 118,000 Ft, RV = 1.0078378, Flight No. 1496P

MODULE NUMBER	ORG.	TEMP INTENSITY ADJUSTED AVERAGE	STD. DEV.	*** COMPARISON - SOLAR SIMULATOR & FLIGHT ***					COMMENTS
				AMO, SOLAR SIM. 1 AU 28 DEG C.		PRE-FLT. VS. POST-FLT. (PERCENT)	PRE-FLT. VS. FLIGHT (PERCENT)	TEMP. COEFF. (MV/C)	
				PRE-FLT	POST-FLT				
90-141	ASEC	60.62	.0851	56.25	56.32	.12	7.64	.0491	GaAs/Ge MANTECH 3.5 mil
90-143	ASEC	90.94	.3648	91.31	91.67	.39	-.65	.0443	10 Ohm 8 mil BSF(B)/R
90-146	ASEC	61.58	.0461	58.74	58.87	.22	4.80	.0553	GaAs/Ge
90-147	ASEC	79.15	.0527	78.91	78.83	-.10	.28	.0504	2 Ohm, 8 mil, BSR
90-149	ASEC	80.76	.0533	80.69	80.66	-.04	.12	.0499	10 Ohm 8 mil BSR
90-150	ASEC	81.05	.1292	79.58	79.00	-.73	1.82	.0868	Space Station 8 X 8
90-151	ASEC	81.86	.0754	80.09	79.74	-.44	2.25	.0843	Space Station 8 X 8
90-122	FORD	80.80	.1355	80.93	80.80	-.16	-.21	.0495	AEG 10 Ohm BSR
90-161	HAC	48.41	.1562	52.25	52.15	-.19	-7.39	-.1786	GaAs/Ge
STS-025	JPL	74.71	.2819	74.90	74.60	-.40	-.42	.0425	K6 3/4 10 Ohm 2 mil Refly T1
80-004	JPL	78.33	.0413	78.23	77.91	-.41	.12	.0407	K4 3/4 10 Ohm 10 mil Refly
80-005	JPL	80.81	.0531	79.83	79.82	-.01	1.18	.0320	SPL K6 1/2 10 Ohm 8 mil Refly
81-002	JPL	86.43	.0458	86.84	86.61	-.26	-.44	.0409	K7 10 Ohm 10 mil Refly
81-004	JPL	77.43	.0459	77.10	77.00	-.13	.39	.0417	SPL K 3/4 10 Ohm 10 mil Refly
82-001	JPL	54.12	.0527	51.01	51.49	.94	6.13	.0438	HAC GaAs Refly
84-002	JPL	59.46	.0452	57.05	56.65	-.70	4.19	.0530	HAC GaAs Refly
86-023	JPL	58.89	.0731	56.46	55.98	-.85	4.21	.0472	ASEC GaAs MANTECH Refly T4
86-024	JPL	58.84	.0766	56.08	55.81	-.48	4.80	.0486	GaAs MANTECH Refly T2
86-025	JPL	87.77	.0605	88.34	87.74	-.68	-.60	.0421	ASEC K6 3/4 8 mil Refly T3
87-001	JPL	64.35	.0879	62.14	61.21	-1.50	3.45	.0609	SPL GaAs Refly
87-003	JPL	58.20	.0425	55.86	55.32	-.97	4.14	.0352	ASEC GaAs MANTECH Refly
89-004	JPL	62.35	.0417	61.52	61.14	-.62	1.38	.0416	NIMIC InP
89-005	JPL	60.35	.0535	57.85	57.51	-.59	4.33	.0489	ASEC GaAs/Ge Refly
89-007	JPL	60.01	.0498	57.35	57.13	-.38	4.58	.0450	ASEC GaAs/Ge Refly
90-001	JPL	61.62	.2337	58.93	58.65	-.48	4.33	.0478	ASEC GaAs/Ge
90-002	JPL	61.12	.0689	58.43	58.17	-.44	4.52	.0386	ASEC GaAs/Ge
90-003	JPL	49.46	.0369	47.27	47.03	-.51	4.63	.0403	ASEC GaAs/Ge Active 2nd Jcn.
90-004	JPL	79.31	.0770	79.67	79.02	-.82	-.53	.0499	ASEC 2 Ohm 8 mil BSR
90-005	JPL	79.66	.0543	79.68	79.25	-.54	.01	.0486	ASEC 2 Ohm 8 mil BSR
90-006	JPL	89.75	.4287	90.45	90.53	.09	-1.02	.0441	ASEC 10 Ohm BSFR
90-007	JPL	84.83	.0882	84.05	84.56	.61	.89	.1233	ASEC 10 Ohm BSFR 1+14 Fluence
90-008	JPL	73.50	.3456	73.29	73.03	-.35	-.01	.1401	ASEC 10 Ohm BSFR 1+15 Fluence
90-009	JPL	62.84	.0959	61.33	60.83	-.82	2.42	.1504	ASEC 10 Ohm BSFR 1+16 Fluence
90-012	JPL	41.38	.0880	41.77	41.57	-.48	-1.12	-.0006	SIEMENS ZnO/CdS/CuInSe2
90-013	JPL	41.24	.0408	41.50	41.10	-.96	-.65	-.0016	SIEMENS ZnO/CdS/CuInSe2
90-016	JPL	58.89	.2217	58.25	57.89	-.62	.86	.0628	NEWCASTLE PV ITO/InP
90-131	SPL	57.86	.2779	54.98	54.86	-.22	4.91	.0522	GaAs
90-133	SPL	48.98	.1119	53.31	53.34	.06	-8.13	-.1682	GaAs (I)/Ge
90-136	SPL	74.72	.0908	73.36	72.89	-.64	1.94	.0727	6 X 6
90-137	SPL	72.36	.0513	70.77	70.93	.23	2.20	.0615	6 X 6
82-120	TRW	75.49	.0358	75.90	75.69	-.28	-.56	.0428	Refly
82-122	TRW	77.49	.3332	77.92	77.83	-.12	-.78	.0413	Refly
90-101	TRW	63.43	.0509	62.59	62.36	-.37	1.41	.0244	InP
90-102	TRW	84.75	.3590	85.04	84.85	-.22	-.55	.0410	BSFR SOLAREX
90-010	VARIAN	50.23	.0357	48.08	47.71	-.77	4.45	-.0256	VARIAN GaAs 1+15 Fluence
90-011	VARIAN	55.19	.0471	52.45	51.84	1.16	5.24	.0349	VARIAN GaAs 1+15 Fluence
0MV		.00	.0000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.0000	
50MV		49.97	.0000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.0000	
80MV		80.07	.0000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.0000	
100MV		99.97	.0000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.0000	

Table 2. Repeatability of Four Standard Solar Cell Modules over a 10-year Period

Flight Date	81-002 Textured K 7	81-004 BSR K 4 3/4	86-025 BSFR K 6 3/4	86-023 Mantech GaAs
7/25/81	87.10	77.55		
7/21/82		77.52		
8/84 Shuttle	86.30			
7/12/85	87.26			
7/15/86			87.71	58.46
8/23/87			87.99	59.47
8/7/88	85.85	77.49	87.00	58.26
8/9/89				58.30
9/6/90	86.43	77.43	87.77	58.89
Average	86.588	77.498	87.618	58.676
Std. Deviation	0.584	0.051	0.429	0.509
Max. Deviation	0.738	0.068	0.618	0.794



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16. Abstract  The 1990 solar cell calibration balloon flight consisted of two flights, one on July 20, 1990, and the other on September 6, 1990. A malfunction occurred during the first flight, which resulted in a complete loss of data and a free fall of the payload from 120,000 feet. After the tracker was rebuilt, and several solar cell modules were replaced, the payload was reflown. The September flight was successful and met all the objectives of the program. Forty-six modules were carried to an altitude of 118,000 ft (36.0 km). Data telemetered from the modules was corrected to 28°C and to 1 a.u. The calibrated cells have been returned to the participants and can now be used as reference standards in simulator testing of cells and arrays.					
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